

162 Yao people mentioned in Chinese historical
144 records, and are related to the Yao people in
Kwangsi. Today, these remaining aborigines
are called She Yao, Hsia, or more commonly,
She.

162 The total She population is now estimated
at 200,000. The great majority are found in
Fukien particularly in the Wu-i mountain region
of Chien-ning and Ch'ang-ting districts. Only
about 44,000 are at present living in the south-
ern section of the Kuo-ts'ang mountain chains
near Li-shui in Chekiang Province. ⁸ Lan, Lei,
Chung, and P'an are the four surnames of the
She people; intermarriage is approved only
241 among families bearing these names. ⁹ They
are poor slash-and-burn farming folks like the
Miao and Yao in South China. (This type of agri-
culture entails burning off the natural vege-
tation on the mountain slopes to enrich the soil
for planting; but the fertility of the soil is ex-
hausted after two to four years, and the farmer
must move on.) Those who work for the Han
landlords usually speak the local Chinese dia-
lects. ¹⁰

563 Regionally as well as nationally, the She
people are still as much neglected by the Com-
munist administration as they were during

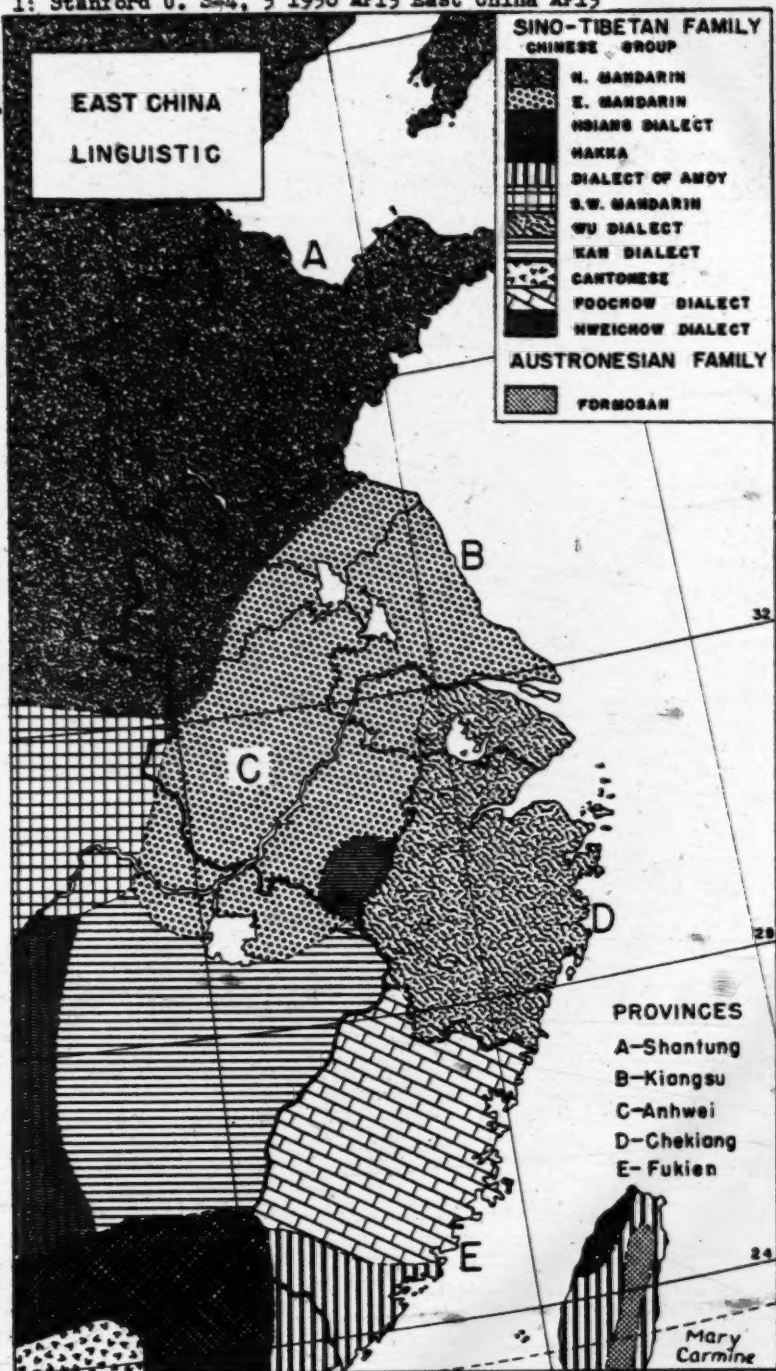
7. The Yao people of Chekiang and Fukien
fled to remote mountain regions after the Yao
suppression campaign of Wang Shou-jen during
the Ming dynasty. Ibid.

8. Ibid.

9. Ibid.

10. Ibid.

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[Facing p. 109]

Annex "A," Subparagraph 1e, Sociological Background
LANGUAGES

I. MAJOR DIALECT
GROUPS

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In this region, there are no significant groups of people speaking non-Chinese languages. The Chinese dialects spoken are: Northern Mandarin, Eastern Mandarin, Wu, Hui-chou, (Hweichow) and Min.

II. GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION AND
NUMERICAL STRENGTH OF SPEAKERS

A. Northern Mandarin

Northern Mandarin, the largest Chinese dialect group, spreading throughout the northern part of China, is spoken in the province of Shantung and north of the Hwai River in Kiangsu and Anhwei provinces, where local dialectal variations do not, of themselves, form a sub-unit of this major dialect group. It has approximately 72, 000, 000 speakers.

B. Eastern Mandarin

Eastern Mandarin is spoken by some 35, 000, 000 people in central Anhwei, parts of northern Kiangsu, and the area around Nanking and Chen-chiang (Chinkiang) south of the Yangtze River in Kiangsu Province.

C. Wu

The name of this dialect group is derived from the ancient Wu kingdom, which occupied

197 Chekiang and southern Kiangsu provinces. About 32,000,000 people are speaking this dialect.

D. Hui-chou

Although comparatively small, this dialect group is independent of other groups. There are some 10,000,000 people in southern Anhwei Province speaking it.

E. Min

Speakers of Min can be generally distinguished. Northern Min is spoken by about 8,000,000 people in Fukien Province north of Amoy; southern Min prevails south of Amoy with about 5,000,000 speakers in this region.

III. DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF THE DIALECTS

A. Northern Mandarin

197 Dialects of Northern Mandarin have in common the following distinguishing features:

194 1. There are two kinds of stop affricative consonants which are not voiced and voiceless as b, d, g, dz, and p, t, k, ts in English, but voiceless unaspirated and voiceless aspirated, commonly expressed in phonetic symbols of the Wade-Giles system of Romanization as p, t, k, ts, and p', t', k', ts' respectively. Roughly speaking, p, t, k sound like English p, t, k in speak, still, and skill; and p', t', k' sound like English p, t, k in peak, till, and kill. Voiced consonants

1917 such as b, d, g in English do not exist in
 194 Northern Mandarin.

2. There is a set of retroflex affricatives and fricatives distinguishable from dental affricatives and fricatives. For example:

Chu (pig) : tsu (to rent)
Ch'eng (city wall): ts'eng (story, layer)
Shan (hill): san (three)

3. The guttural nasal ng does not occur in the initial position of a word as it usually does in many other dialect groups.

4. A vowel scheme such as the following exists:

<u>Front</u>		<u>Central</u>	<u>Back</u>	
<u>Unrounded</u>	<u>Rounded</u>		<u>Unrounded</u>	<u>Rounded</u>
High i	u			u
Mid e		ə	ê	o
Low		a		

With an additional symbol for the apical vowel, the above scheme will suffice to indicate all the vowel sounds of these dialects. Ordinarily, e and ə, or ê and o are not distinguishable.

5. Only two final nasals, n and ng are found (except in Shansi Province), and they are distinguishable regardless of the vowel preceding them.

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Lan (indigo) : lang (wolf)
Chen (true) : cheng (to steam)
Min (people) : ming (name)
Sun (grandchild): sung (loose)
Ch'ün (a crowd) : ch'iung (poor,
 impoverished)

6. There are four tones. The pitch of the first tone is high-level; that of the second, high-rising; that of the third, low-dipping; and that of the fourth, high-falling. Graphically, these four tones may be represented as follows: ˊ, ˊˊ, ˊˋ, and ˊˋˊ, respectively. However, the dialects spoken in Shansi and areas adjacent to it have an additional fifth tone, which is always associated with a glottal stop in a final position. Another characteristic of these dialects is that n and ng rarely occur after the vowels a and e.

7. A few variations from the standard Northern Mandarin are noted in this dialect group as spoken in East China.

a) Tonal changes

In different areas the tonal patterns vary as follows:

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	<u>First Tone</u>	<u>Second Tone</u>	<u>Third Tone</u>	<u>Fourth Tone</u>
Standard Northern Manadarin	High-level	High-rising	Low-dipping	High-falling
Dialects in western Shantung, northern Anhwei and Kiangsu	Mid-rising	High-falling	High-level	Low-falling- rising
Dialects in eastern Shantung	Low-falling	High-falling	Rising	Mid-level

b) Palatal Differentiations

In some scattered areas in this region, Mandarin palatals are divided into dental sibilants followed by i or u, and gutturals followed by i or u. In these areas, certain Mandarin homonyms are pronounced with distinguishable variations

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as follows:

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	<u>Standard</u> <u>Mandarin</u>	<u>East China Variation</u>
wine	chiu	tsiu
nine	chiu	kiou
fun	ch'u	ts'u
to go	ch'u	k'u
to wash	hsi	si
to like	hsi	hi

In some areas in southern Shantung, the standard Northern words chao (to search for), ch'a (to investigate), and shan (mountain) are pronounced tso, ts'a, and san, respectively.

B. Eastern Mandarin

Although basically similar to Northern Mandarin, Eastern Mandarin has its clearly distinguishable features, of which the major ones are:

1. Lack of differentiation between initials l and n.

Speakers of Eastern Mandarin tend to pronounce these two initials interchangeably without distinguishing between them. To them, such standard Northern Mandarin words as nan (south) and lan (indigo), ni (you) and li (reason), nu (anger) and lu (road), and nu (female) and lu (brigade) are homonymous twins.

2. Absence of final n, and often final ng after the vowels a and e.

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For example, kuan (officer) in standard Northern Mandarin is pronounced by the residents of Nanking as kua but with a nasalized a. In this connection, the finals ng and n after the vowel i are usually pronounced ng in Eastern Mandarin, such as ping (guest), which is pronounced as pin in standard Northern Mandarin.

3. Presence of a fifth tone.

In addition to the four tones used in standard Northern Mandarin, Eastern Mandarin has a fifth tone -- short high-level -- which is associated with a final glottal stop. This tone comes from the ancient "entering" tone which has merged into other tones in standard Northern Mandarin.

4. Lack of retroflex initials.

The retroflex initials in such words as shan (mountain), ch'ung (worm), and chu (to cook) in standard Northern Mandarin, are pronounced in Eastern Mandarin with a dental sibilant; thus, they become san, ts'ung, and tsu, respectively.

C. Wu

1. In addition to the usual unaspirated and aspirated voiceless stops in standard Northern Mandarin, another set of "voiced" stops are found in the Wu initial system. The voiced stops as initials originally existed in all Chinese dialects, but they gradually disappeared

- 197 from all other dialects except Wu. In Wu
194 these voiced stops are not fully voiced but
are pronounced with voiced aspiration. In
the following illustration, the dialect of
Soochow is chosen as representative of Wu.

	<u>Mandarin</u>	<u>Wu</u>
to accompany	p'ei	be (<u>e</u> as in "set")
same	t'ung	tung
mad	k'uang	kuang

2. Ancient voiced affricatives and fricatives have been kept partially voiced in Wu. At the same time, certain dialects in this group tend to mix voiced affricatives with fricatives as shown in the following comparison:

	<u>Mandarin</u>	<u>Wu</u>
room	fang	vang
to follow	ts'ung	zung
dam	cha	za

3. Some Mandarin zero-initials, immediately followed by u (pronounced as in "pull") and originated from an ancient labio-dental nasal, are in most dialects of Wu either m vernacularly or v literarily.

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	<u>Mandarin</u>	<u>Wu</u>
literary	wen	men (or ven)
stocking	wa	ma
ten thousand	wan	man (or van)
tail	wei	mi (or vi)
have not	wu	vu

4. Mandarin j becomes a voiced fricative or a nasal in Wu; thus Mandarin jih (day) becomes zih or nih.

5. Many dialects of the Wu group have in general preserved the ancient guttural nasal initial, with a variety of palatalized n before high front vowels. Northern Mandarin words e (forehead), wai (outside), and i (to doubt) are pronounced as nge, ngai, and ni, respectively, in Wu.

6. In the final system of Wu, many Mandarin diphthongs are simplified into simple vowels; thus Mandarin lai (to come) becomes le (e as in "set"), and Mandarin kuai (unusual) becomes kua in Wu. Many Mandarin finals lose their nasals in Wu; thus Mandarin nan (difficult) becomes ne (e as in "set"), and t'ien (sky) becomes t'ie in Wu.

7. Wu dialects have as many as eight tones. The eight tones may be characterized as fully falling (V), low rising (A), low falling-rising (V), low falling (J), mid rising (A), falling-rising (V), short high-level (7), short low-rising (A). Certain dialects in this group have only seven tones as a result of not distinguishing between the rising and falling tones for words with voiced initials.

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8. Local variations in Wu are more noticeable than those in the Mandarin group, as the following comparison will show:

	Soochow (in Kiangsu)	Hangchow (in Chekiang)	Wen-chou (in Fukien)	Chin-hua (in Chekiang)
I, me	ngau (a as in "sofa", u as in "pull")	ngo (o as in "sorry")	ng	nga (a as in "ask")
we	ni	ngo man	ng le	ng liang
he	li	t'a	k'i	k'o (o as a in "all", pronounced with an "entering" tone)

D. Hui-chou

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194 Although Hui-chou dialects are spoken in a relatively small area in East China, they are sufficiently different to constitute almost a separate group. The dialect spoken in An-ch'ing, former capital of Anhwei Province, is perhaps most representative. Its special characteristics are as follows:

1. There is no initial h before u; thus Mandarin hu (tiger) becomes fu in Hui-chou.

2. The ancient initial ng has been preserved in Hui-chou; thus Mandarin i (to doubt) becomes ngi in Hui-chou.

3. Palatals are used in place of many retroflexes; thus Mandarin chu (pig) becomes tsü in Hui-chou.

4. Very few diphthongs are found in Hui-chou; for instance, Mandarin tai (to substitute) becomes ta.

5. Mandarin finals n and ng following the vowel a lose their nasal quality in Hui-chou; thus Mandarin wan (to finish) becomes wao (o as in "sorry"), and Mandarin yang (sheep) becomes io.

6. There are six tones in Hui-chou, one of which is originated from the ancient "entering" tone and is always accompanied by a glottal stop.

F Min

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The Min dialect group is usually divided into Northern Min and Southern Min. Northern Min is represented by the dialect of Foochow, while Southern Min is typified by the dialect spoken in Amoy. In general, all Min dialects have the following features:

1. There is no labial fricative sound. For example, Mandarin f is replaced by h, p, or p'. Hence Mandarin fa (law) becomes Foochow huak, Amoy huat, and Swatow huap; Mandarin fan (cooked rice meal) becomes Foochow puong and Amoy pong; and Mandarin fang (fragrant) becomes p'ang for most major Min dialects.

2. Words with dental or retroflex affricative initials in other dialects are replaced by dental stop initials. Thus, Mandarin ch'ih (pond), ch'ou (to extract), and chung (middle) become tie, t'iu, and tung, respectively, in Foochow, and ti, t'iu, and tiong in Amoy.

3. Ancient voiced stops and affricatives have lost their voiced quality as has happened to those of the Mandarin dialects. But, unlike Mandarin, they have all become unaspirated instead of being both aspirated and unaspirated as conditioned by tones. Thus, Mandarin p'o (old woman), po (to bind), t'i (topic, title) tan (but), ts'ao (trough), and chin (to exhaust) becomes po, puok, te, tang, tso, and tseing in Foochow, and po, pak, te, tan, tso, and tsin in Amoy.

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4. There are generally seven or eight tones, and a very elaborate system of tone sandhi, especially in Northern Min.

Besides the above-mentioned common features of the Min group, Northern Min has the following unique characteristics:

1. Vowels vary according to tones. There are seven tones in Northern Min: high-level, fully falling, mid-level, low-rising, low-level, rising-falling, and short high-rising.

2. There is only one nasal final in Northern Min; thus Northern Min ng takes the place of both ng and n in Mandarin.

3. Northern Min is noted for its system of tone sandhi. Each of its seven tones has three or four different variations, depending upon the tone of the word that follows.

Southern Min, which is spoken in Amoy and in areas south of Amoy, further characterizes itself by the following features:

1. There is a tendency to oralize the nasal initials when they are not immediately followed by nasalized vowels or the nasal ng. Thus, b, l, g and m, n, ng are distributed complementarily in general.

2. Nasalized vowels and diphthongs are popular in daily speech, although usually not recorded in dictionaries dealing only with literary pronunciations.

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3. Tone sandhi is very common, but its system is not as elaborate as that of the dialects of Foochow. Each tone has only one sandhi form, regardless of the tone of the word following.

IV. DEGREE OF AUDITORY INTELLIGIBILITY

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Although it is rather difficult to point out the exact degree of mutual auditory intelligibility of the dialects spoken in East China, the previous section dealing with their distinguishing features should have made it reasonably clear that speakers of Northern Mandarin and Eastern Mandarin are generally understandable to one another for all practical purposes. However, speakers of those two groups of dialects may experience great difficulty in trying to understand or make themselves understood by the speakers of Min, Wu, or Hui-chou dialects. It must be noted that the differences of the dialects tend to diminish in the "twilight zones" between the dialectal areas in East China, and residents of these areas usually understand two or more dialects in addition to the one appropriate in their home place.

The existence of two systems of pronunciation in non-Mandarin dialects merits attention. A non-Mandarin dialect speaker is likely to employ a "literary" system of pronunciation when he reads a printed text, but will use a "vernacular" system to pronounce the words in conversation. For example, in Wu the "literary" v initial becomes "vernacular" m. In Foochow the difference between these two

● 197 systems is even more noticeable; thus "literary" huang (rice) becomes "vernacular" puong. The situation is further complicated by the fact that some non-Mandarin dialect speakers freely mix "literary" with "vernacular" pronunciations in daily conversation.

V. THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE OR KUO-YU

Since there is no standard spoken Chinese and since the various Chinese dialects in general are sufficiently different to make them mutually unintelligible to various degrees, many difficulties naturally arise. The Chinese themselves have long felt the need for a national language that will help them solve such difficulties. Consequently, as early as 1911, a movement was launched to unify the national language, and a system of thirty-nine phonetic symbols which were later reduced to thirty-seven was devised primarily for the purpose of indicating speech sounds. In the following year the pronunciation of Northern Mandarin as typified by the dialect of Peiping was adopted as the standard for the new national language. With the strong support of the government and educational leaders, the movement soon gained momentum and swept the entire country. Gradually more and more speakers of other dialects began to make an effort to learn the new national language or kuo-yü.

During the years of China's war of resistance against Japan when people speaking various dialects were squeezed into the hinter-

• 197 land, dialectal barriers were gradually broken down. A situation like that proved to be favorable to the further popularization of the national language. Although it may be exaggeration to say that now the national language has replaced the local dialects in the Central-South Region, it is nevertheless true that kuo-yü is gaining wider acceptance than ever before.

VI. THE CHINESE WRITTEN LANGUAGE

212 Despite the fact that the Chinese people in this region speak different Chinese dialects, the fact still remains that they use one and the same system of writing. China's written language consists of thousands of uniformly understood logographs or "characters" as they are commonly called. They can be understood only with reference to their ancient forms.

A. Pictographs

Chinese characters are traditionally classified into six main categories, the first of which is pictographs. The characters in this category all originated from simple pictures: jih (now written 日) is the character for "the sun;" yüeh (now written 月) is the character for "the moon," (now written 月). However, they have long lost their function of picturing things and become merely conventionalized visual symbols of spoken words.

B. Ideographs

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185 had to be done to make the written language of China more effective, so that it could be within the grasp of the average Chinese citizen in a relatively short period of time.

A. Phonetic Symbols

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185 One type of reform advocated the use of phonetic symbols as an aid to the illiterate to learn to read. However, since the sole function of these symbols is phonetic, they are effective when they are used as a guide to correct pronunciation in accordance with the standard of the national language for the purpose of leveling down dialectal differences in pronunciation. They are helpful only to those who have not yet acquired such a knowledge. They cannot possibly add anything to the attempt to make the Chinese language system simpler or more readily accessible to the illiterate masses.

B. Alphabetization

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185 Another type of reform advocated was the alphabetization of Chinese in order to get away from ideographic writing. As a matter of fact, the use of the Roman alphabet for the transcription of sounds of the Chinese language is no novel suggestion. As early as the beginning of the sixteenth century, Matteo Ricci, a Jesuit missionary to China, began to transcribe the then Mandarin sounds with the Roman alphabet on the basis of the speech sounds of his own native Italian language. Later, other systems of romanization were devised by others to meet the needs of those speaking other